

# GRAMMAR OF PLAINSONG

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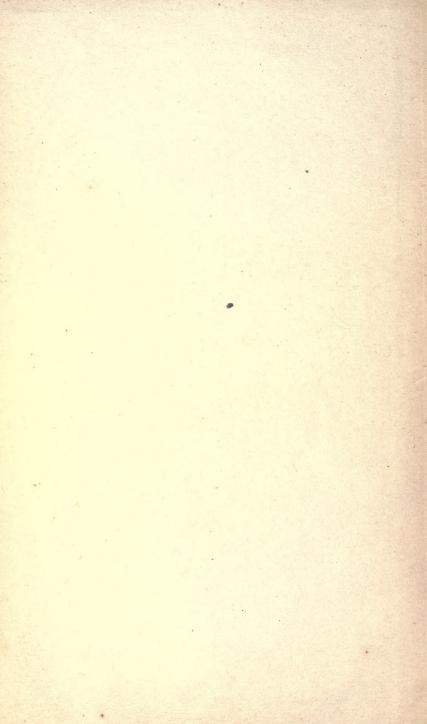
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Grammar of Plainsong

# Nihil obstat:

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# Grammar of Plainsong

#### IN TWO PARTS

BY THE

# BENEDICTINES OF STANBROOK.

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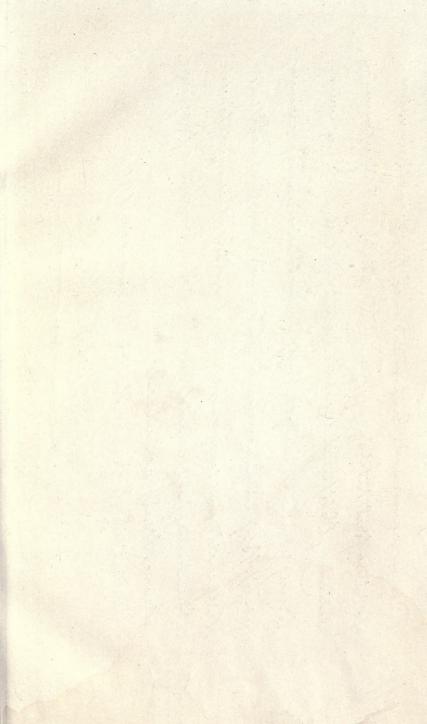
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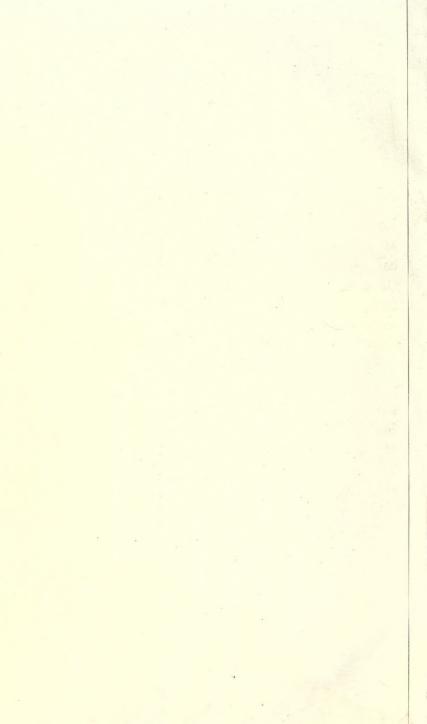
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# PREFACE.

The following pages, written at the request of His Lordship the Bishop of Birmingham, are intended as an introduction to a practical study of Plainsong; we have, therefore, avoided in them, as far as possible, all such intricate points as belong to the archaeology of the subject. That they may contribute, in however small a degree, to the fulfilment of the ideal proposed to our choirs by our Holy Father Pope Pius X., is our humble and earnest desire.

It is a pleasant duty to ackowledge our indebtedness to the Revd. Dom A. Mocquereau, O. S. B., Prior of Solesmes, and to the Revd. H. Bewerunge, Professor of Ecclesiastical Music at Maynooth, from both of whom we have received much generous and invaluable assistance.

Stanbrook Abbey, Worcester. Jan. 30th, 1905.

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# PART I.

PRACTICAL.



## CHAPTER I.

# Historical Sketch.

Plainsong, Plainchant, or Gregorian Chant is the official

music of the Roman Church.

The name of Plainsong was given to the chant after the introduction of Harmony. Because the old Church melody served as a fixed theme for varying contrapuntal treatment, it was called *cantus firmus*; and because the added parts were invariably more elaborate, more "figured", it was called *cantus planus*.

The chant is also called Gregorian, on account of the tradition which ascribes its compilation and final arrangement

to St. Gregory the Great.1

This ancient art, which comes to us with the special sanction of the Church, has a history co-extensive with the Church's

own. This history may be divided into four periods:

Ist. The period of its formation, from the Apostolic times, or at least from the cessation of persecution (A.D. 312), to St. Gregory the Great; 2nd. The period when it was at its perfection, from St. Gregory to the 16th century (A.D. 600 to 1600). 3rd. The period of decadence, from the 16th to the 19th century. 4th. The period of revival, inaugurated in the

middle of the 19th century, and still continuing.

I. Period. We can form only a general idea of the music of the first Christian centuries, but the existence of a definite musical setting for the sacred offices is proved by frequent allusions in the works of the Fathers. The carliest Western Liturgy of which the chant is known is the Milanese, which represents a 4th century work. It is probable that much of the Roman chant was derived from this source. A comparison of the Ambrosian and Gregorian music shows that the former (judging at least from the sources now available) was at once simpler in its simple forms, and more elaborate in

<sup>&#</sup>x27;For a statement on this subject, see *The Gregorian Tradition*, by Dom W. Corney (*Downside Review*, April 1904); St. Gregory and the Gregorian Music (Plainsong and Med. Music Soc); also Origine et développement du chant liturgique, by Dr. Wagner (Desclée).

its florid pieces than the latter. St. Gregory's work, about the end of the 6th century, was to arrange, and codify, and probably to simplify, the already existing chants, and he is generally supposed to have completed the body of Church Music by composing melodies specially for the portions added by himself to the Liturgy. The Cantus Romanus thus arranged spread gradually through Europe. St. Gregory himself sent it to England with St. Augustine, and wherever the faith took root in this land, there also the Church's song found its natural home. Its introduction into the North of England was the work of St. Wilfrid, who borrowed two Cantors from Canterbury, the fountain-head in England of all Roman traditions. St. Benet Biscop's zeal for the perfection of all ecclesiastical matters urged him to procure for his monasteries of Wearmouth and Jarrow the instruction of Abbot John, Arch-cantor of the Roman Church, and all the neighbouring monasteries availed themselves of this opportunity to learn the most correct manner of rendering the sacred chants. The second synod of Cloveshoe (A.D. 747) enforced the use of the Roman chant in all Church services. In the 10th century St. Dunstan gave a fresh stimulus to Church Music, as to all other ecclesiastical studies, and to him is attributed the composition of the beautiful Kyrie "Rex splendens." That England, in the following centuries, kept up its reputation for Church Music, is proved by entries in mediaeval history, and by the numerous MSS. of all ages which may still be seen in the libraries of the country.

It gives an added interest to the study of the venerable melodies now so happily restored to us, to know that they are identically the same as those sung by our forefathers in the Ages of Faith. Anyone familiar with the Solesmes editions will find himself quite at home, both as to notation and to melody, if confronted with an English MS. of say the 13th century. It is interesting also to note that the printed Sarum books <sup>1</sup> are identical with MSS. of the same use, a fact which proves that Englishmen, both before and after the Reformation (for some of the books belong to the Marian

Owing to faulty registration misplacing lines and spaces these books abound in misprints, but the mistakes are so obvious as to be easily detected by the student.

revival), were familiar with the ancient Gregorian types. For instance, the only printed Sarum Gradual in the British Museum (C. 35. L. 5.), dated 1532, gives the very same melodies, with the same divisions of neums, and the same setting of syllables to music, as the 13th century MS. Gradual reproduced in facsimile by the Plainsong and Mediaeval Music Society

After this rapid glance at the history of the chant in England, we may return to its general history.

II. The period inaugurated by St. Gregory (600-1600) had various phases. In the holy Pope's own time, and for ages after, his work was considered so sacred that none might touch or alter it, and as a matter of fact the great bulk of the music belonging to the Proper of the Mass has probably come down to us substantially intact from St. Gregory. The ordinary of the Mass had not reached its present form in St. Gregory's time, and the music of that part is therefore of a later date, as is that of part of the office (some Antiphons and Responsories).

The liturgical movement inaugurated by Charlemagne resulted in the spread of the Roman Chant throughout France and Germany. The chief schools, founded by Roman Cantors, were at St. Gall and at Metz.

With the year A.D. 1000 ends the golden age of Plainsong; the chant was still held in honour, but the compositions of this period lack the severe beauty of the ancient Gregorian type. Many of them are beautiful in their own style, but others are mere artistic tours de force, and often, on account of the wide compass they embrace, are quite beyond the power of modern choirs.

The 14th century brought a further falling off in the chant. At that time the attractions of harmony were fascinating all musicians, and the harmonists and mensuralists were making their mark even on the Church's song, and destroying its rhythm, though the melodies were still preserved intact. This prepared the way for the third period.

III. The decadence (1600-1800). Up to this time there had been ha striking unanimity in all the MSS. and printed books containing the chants, but the Pagan Renaissance brought in the fashion of sneering at everything mediaeval.

Church Music shared the fate of architecture and the other arts; Plainsong was despised as the production of a barbarous age, and though its existence was saved by its necessary place in the Divine Services, it was seriously disfigured. The melodic text was subjected to a process of abbreviation; neumatic passages were arbitrarily cut up, neums were displaced, melodies were frequently altered beyond recognition. Such procedure would have been hard to forgive even if the so-called Reformers had acted on any consistent or artistic principle, but there is no trace of any such intention. The abbreviators had the misfortune of living at a time when, as has been said, the true spirit of the Gregorian melodies had been lost, and their work was only what might be expected under those circumstances. To this period belong the

Medicean edition, and others of the same type.

IV. The fourth period opened in the 10th century as a consequence of the restoration of the Roman Liturgy in Dom Guéranger, Abbot of Solesmes, feeling that this restoration could not be considered complete until the ancient chant was also revived, deputed Dom Pothier, one of his monks, to the special study of this branch. The outcome of his work is now well known throughout Europe; its first result was the publication of "Les Mélodies Grégoriennes," a remarkable book which has done pioneer-work in the cause. To bring the ancient Gregorian into practice, Dom Pothier published, in 1885, the "Liber Gradualis," which represented a vast amount of research and labour. Since then he has given us the Liber Antiphonarius, the Responsorial, a Monastic Processional, and a collection of Liturgical pieces entitled Variae preces. And all this time the Solesmes School has been forming. Headed by Dom Mocquereau, Prior of St. Peter's, a number of monks devote themselves to a thorough and critical study of the chant. Working on the comparative method, they collate a vast number of MSS. of all ages and countries, in order to procure the most authentic reading of the musical text. The result of these researches has been placed at the Holy Father's entire disposal, and will form the basis of the Vatican Edition now in preparation. Solesmes editions now in circulation have certain marks added to the ordinary Plainsong notation, to indicate the rhythm, while, in answer to the outcry of Choirmasters, several books have appeared giving the melodies translated into the notation of modern music.

The restored chant has been quietly making its way for years, and within the last decade it has spread into every European country and also to the New World. The expiration of the term of approbation accorded to the Ratisbon version, the declaration of the Sacred Congregation of Rites regarding the Solesmes edition, and finally the *Motu proprio* of our Holy Father Pope Pius X., have created quite an epoch in the history of Plainsong and made it a matter of the highest and most practical importance.



## CHAPTER II.

# The Pronunciation of Latin.

A few rules for the Italian pronunciation of Latin are given the first place in these pages, because the examples occurring in the subsequent chapters contain many Latin words, and it will be well to acquire at once a correct manner of pronouncing them.

#### Vowels.

"The life and soul of Italian pronunciation lies in its vowels," I and the student should take the greatest pains

to acquire the correct manner of treating these.

Each vowel has one uniform sound, whose quality is not substantially changed by its quantity. It is the neglect of this elementary principle which produces the half-Italian, half-English pronunciation with which we are familiar.

- A. This vowel has always a full open sound, as in *father*, not only in open syllables like *amo*, but also in closed ones, such as *nam*. The latter word must not, therefore, be pronounced as in the English words; *ram*, *can*, but with a full *a* as in *amo*
- E. We have in English no exact equivalent for the Italian e. It is certainly not the dipthongal sound given to the English a. It is more like the e in met, or the a in fare, although more resonant than in English. The digraphs  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha$  equal e.
- I. This vowel is always equivalent to the English ee, whether the vowel in the Latin word be long or short. "The treatment of i in closed syllables is the one characteristic defect of Englishmen by which they can generally be detected in speaking Italian and other foreign languages." The obscure sound of i often belonging to the word in English, must be avoided in Latin. In the word inter, for example, the first syllable must not have the sound of the English tin, but something more like een though short.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See for most of this chapter a paper by the REVD. L. CASARTELLI. (Report of Headmasters' Conference, 1891).

O. This vowel is pronounced as in the English word for.

U. The vowel u is always to be pronounced as oo in English, and never with the obscure sound sometimes given to it in English, for example rub.

AU. This dipthong is pronounced like ou in the English word plough.

#### Consonants.

It will be convenient to begin with a general classification of the consonants.

1st. Labials: B, P, F, V.

B and P are formed by closing the lips while the breath is collected, and then opening them to utter the desired sound.

F and V are produced by pressing the upper teeth on the under lip.

2nd. Dentals: T, D, S, Z, and soft G.

T and D are produced by pressing the tip of the tongue against the roots of the upper teeth.

S and Z require the same movement of the tongue as do T and D, but the tongue must not go so near to the gums; a space being left between the tongue and the gums, the hissing sound of these letters is obtained.

SH. To pronounce these letters, the tongue is drawn a little more inwards than for S.

3rd. Gutturals: K, Q, C, and hard G.

For K and G press the tongue against the soft palate, — the sharp removal of the tongue produces K, the less sharp removal, hard G.

4th. Nasal: M and N.

For M, the lips are closed, as for B or P, while the sound is produced through the nose.

For N, the tongue is placed as for T, and the breath is sent out through the nose.

5th. Liquids: L and R.

L is pronounced like T but more with the tip of the tongue and by placing the tongue nearer the teeth.

R. For this letter the tongue is almost in the position required for T, but far enough from the palate to jar against it when the air is propelled.

"Consonants may also be classified according as the voice, as distinguished from the breath, is heard in them or no. Thus the sounds represented by p, t, k, th (in thin), s (in sin), sh, f, and by wh in white as pronounced by a Northerner are said to be voiceless or unvoiced; while the corresponding sounds represented by b, d, g (in go), th (in thine), z, s (in pleasure), v, and w (in we) are said to be voiced." v

Pronunciation of Consonants in Italian.

The consonants not named in the following list are to be pronounced as in English.

C, before e, i,  $\infty$ , and  $\infty$ , is equivalent to the English *ch* in such words as *church*. Thus: cetera = chetera. In all other cases, C is equivalent to the English K.

CH is always as K.

G, before e, i, æ, æ, is soft, as in the English word general. Thus: Genitor, regi, etc. Otherwise, G is palatal, as in the English govern. Thus: gubernator, plaga, ergo.

GN have the softened sound given to these two letters in French. The equivalent in English would be n followed by the consonantal sound of y, as in new.

H. In the two words: mihi and nihil, the H is pronounced like K, and in ancient books these words are usually written: michi and nichil.

f is always to be treated as Y. Thus: fam = Yam.

SC, before e, i,  $\infty$ ,  $\infty$ , is like SH in English. Thus : Suscépi = Sushepi.

TI, when preceded and followed by a vowel, is equivalent to TSI. Thus:  $l ext{$a$titia} = l ext{$a$titis} a$ .

TH is always like the English T. Thus: thesaurus = tesaurus.

Z is pronounced like DZ.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Matriculation English Course, by W. H. Low and John Briggs.

The purity of each vowel-sound must be carefully maintained as long as the sound lasts. To ensure this the mouth must be held perfectly steady, and the other vocal organs must alter their position no more than is required by change of pitch. *Exercise*: sing the scales or any other exercise to each of the yowel-sounds in turn.

Each vowel-sound must be distinct and clear, and every effort must be made to ensure this, for there is a tendency in choirs, when singing long neumatic passages, to give an uniform sound (a sort of oo) to all the vowels.

In Latin every syllable is pronounced; we must therefore avoid running two vowels into one, as: devotio-nis, hostia, which should be pronounced: de-vo-ti-o-nis and ho-sti-a.

It is a common fault to omit the r in Latin words when it occurs with another consonant; to say, for instance, canis for carnis, mater for martyr.

Care must also be taken not to run words together; we should not say, e. g.: te roga-musau-dinos but te rogamus audi nos; not aso-lisor-tuus-quead, but a solis ortu usque ad.

It has been said that if vowels are the soul of a word, consonants are its physical life. All consonants must be articulated strongly and clearly, or there will be no energy in the pronunciation. The greatest care should be given to this point. Any piece of chant will prove an excellent exercise, if the pupil is made first to read the text aloud, with an exaggerated attention to the consonants; then to sing it in the same way. It must be remembered that to pronounce the different consonants a certain amount of facial movement is indispensable. We do not of course mean to encourage grimaces, but the other extreme is also to be avoided.

Special attention should be paid to double consonants; they must be made to close the preceding syllable as well as to begin the following, and the time used in pronouncing them must be doubled. We must, therefore, say: tol-lis, not to-lis; pec-cata, not pe-cata.

On the other hand, syllables must be so carefully divided that single consonants may not seem to be doubled; for example, we must not say: ca-thol-licam, apostol-licam, but ca-thô-li-cam, apostô-li-cam; not confit-teor, lib-bera, but confiteor, li-bera, etc.

A correct pronunciation of vowels and consonants being secured, the pupil must next turn his attention to accentuation, for it is the accent which gives strength and unity to words by gathering all their elements into one coherent whole.

There are three kinds of accents: the tonic accent, the logical accent, and the pathetic accent.

Tonic or grammatical accent. Every Latin word which has an independent signification has a tonic accent.

Words which have only a relative meaning have no tonic accent: a) Prepositions, when they precede the words they govern; b) conjunctions, when they occur at the beginning of phrases. (Both prepositions and conjunctions occurring under other circumstances have an accent.) Thus: a) qua propter; b) venit ergo, Tu autem.

Relative pronouns when they express mere relation have no accent, v. g.: Benedictus vir qui confidit in Domino. It however their antecedent is not expressed, or if they are used as interrogatives, they are accented; v. g. Qui sédes ad déxteram Pátris; qui sunt ísti qui ut núbes vólant?

Place of the tonic accent. In words of two syllables the accent is always on the first: pater, mater, soror, frater.

In words of more than two syllables the accent occurs on the penultimate or antepenultimate, according to the quantity of the penultimate. a) If the penultimate is long, it is accented; b) if it is short, the antepenultimate is accented: a) peccáta, fenéstra. b) Fácilis, glória, justificátio.

The enclitics, que, ne, ve, often draw the accent on to the final syllable of the word to which they are added; thus: hominésque, Filióque, fuítne, volucrésve.

Secondary accent. Each word can have only one tonic accent, but long words require subsidiary accents to secure their proper pronunciation. Thus, for instance, justificationes, consubstantiálem, omnipoténtem, have their respective tonic accents as marked, but for careful pronunciation they require minor accents thus: justificátiones, consubstántiálem, omnipoténtem.

Logical accent. What the tonic accent is to a word, that the logical accent is to a phrase, for its office is to bring out the sense of the phrase, by laying stress on the important

word or words. Thus, in the following examples the accent is on the underlined words: Ostende nobis Domine misericordiam tuam. Confitemini Domino quoniam bonus.

Pathetic or expressive accent. The pathetic accent is sometimes considered to be out of place in Plainsong, but it cannot be excluded from any music. It must, however, be made use of in a spirit becoming Church Music. We may perhaps call it the devotional or liturgical accent, since its object is to elicit the unction of the Church's prayers, and to bring out the lessons implied in every liturgical season and indeed in every feast. It must never, however, be allowed to degenerate into the sentimental, which is altogether abhorrent to the virile character of Plainsong.



# CHAPTER III.

## Notation.

#### The Notes.

Plainsong notation is developed from the acute accent (\*), denoting an elevation of the voice; the grave accent (\*), signifying a fall of the voice; the circumflex ( $\wedge$ ) and the anticircumflex ( $\vee$ ) accents, which are formed from the first two. The combinations of these accents have in course of time, and after various modifications, produced the neums or groups of notes given below.

There are three forms of the single note: the square note, or punctum (•), the tailed note, or virga, (•) and the diamond (•). There are further two forms for special ornamental notes: the Oriscus and the Quilisma.

#### Single Notes.



#### Groups of two notes.



I. Podatus. In this group the lower note is always sounded first.

# Groups of three notes.



2. Porrectus. The stroke, in this neum, represents two notes, i. e. one at the beginning and one at the end.

#### Groups of four notes.



#### Group of five notes.



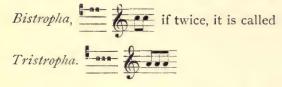
Pressus. This neum is formed by the meeting of two notes of the same pitch. It may occur at the beginning of a group, or at the junction of two groups.





It must be remembered that the Pressus effect is to be produced only when the two notes of the same pitch are printed quite closely together as in the examples given above.

Strophicus. This consists in the repetition of the same note. If the note is repeated only once, the neum is called



Oriscus. A note at the end of a group, generally between two torculi.



Quilisma. This little jagged note is usually found between two notes which are a minor third apart. The usual manner of rendering the group, is to prolong slightly the note or group which precedes it.



Salicus. This group must not be confused with the Scandicus. The former has the stress on its second note, the latter on its first.

## Liquescent groups.



The liquescent groups are marked only in the restored versions of the chant; they are important chiefly as helps to a careful pronunciation.

A little memory work will soon familiarise the student with the names of the groups, and he will find this knowledge very useful in practising with a number of singers, when a special group can be at once pointed out for attention by its name.

#### The Stave.

To express definite intervals, these notes are placed on a stave of four lines. <sup>1</sup>

4 3 2 1

If the melody extends beyond the compass covered by the stave, leger lines are added.

The stave is the result of successive attempts at fixing the pitch of sounds. The earliest notation was expressed only by neums, i. e. signs written above the text, but generally affording no hint as to the pitch. At one time a greater number of lines was used. The introduction of the stave in its present meaning is due to GUY OF AREZZO.

The stave is now used in this way: both lines and spaces denote different positions, and each higher or lower position indicates one higher or lower degree of the scale.

The lines are counted from the lowest.

The melody is, in modern editions, divided on the stave into phrases and periods, by means of vertical lines called bars. These bars, which do not indicate time-divisions, are of four kinds: 1) The double bar used only at the end of pieces, or to mark off the parts of a piece sung by different divisions of the choir. 1 2) The whole bar which corresponds to a full stop in punctuation, marks the place of a full breath and a long pause. 3) The half bar coccurs at the end of phrases, and corresponds to the colon or semi-colon. Breath should be taken at half-bars. 4) The quarter bar corresponds to the comma. Breath may be taken, but it must be done rapidly. 5) A comma after a note marks the place of a very rapid breath

#### The Clefs.

As already stated, successive positions on the stave mark successive degrees of the scale. But they do not, by themselves, show the distinction of tones and semitones. To do this the clefs are employed. A clef, by giving a definite name to one particular line, supplies a means of reckoning all the other notes. Two clefs are now employed in Plainsong: the *Ut* or *Do* clef (a formalised manner of writing the letter C); and the *Fa* clef

These clefs are movable. The Ut clef, for instance, may be placed on any of the four lines; the Fa clef is generally

<sup>&#</sup>x27;The double-bar is often used to mark the intonation of pieces, but in the latest editions an asterisk is employed for this purpose.

used only for pieces of the second mode, and is usually on the third line.

#### Accidentals.

The only accidental used is the flat (s), and it affects only one note, viz, B. The influence of the flat extends only to the bar in which it occurs. If a natural is required in the same bar, it is indicated by the usual sign: 1.

#### The Guide.

This is a little note placed at the end of each line to indicate the note which begins the next line. This sign is used also when, in the course of a line, the clef is changed, to show the relative pitch of the first note after the change. Such alterations of clef are very frequent in the MSS., but they have been greatly reduced in the most recent editions. For an example of change of clef, see the Ry. Cum appropinguasset, of Palm Sunday.

The value of notes in Plainsong is not determined by their shape. The square note, the tail note, and the diamond note indicate sounds of the same value. The form of these notes is, we may say, historical, and the story of their evolution is full of interest. It will be sufficient for our present purpose to say that the plain square note (punctum) is derived from the stroke which indicated a low note, and the tailed-note (virga) from the stroke or accent marking a higher note (1). The lozenge-shaped note is due, in the MSS., to the copyist's holding his broad-ended pen in a slanting position when writing descending notes, hence diamonds occur properly only in descending passages.

The rhythmical signs added to the groups in the latest Solesmes editions are shown below. A dot, added to a note, doubles that note; the little stroke, added to a note, gives that note a rhythmical accent, but does not lengthen it.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Gregorian Music, by the Benedictines of Stanbrook; also Elements of Plainsong, by BRIGGS.

Grammar. - 2.



And so on for the rest of the groups.

A line placed under or over a group indicates that that

note or group is to be sung more slowly.

In response to requests from many quarters, the Solesmes Fathers have published a good number of choir-books in modern notation. The principles on which these transcriptions have been made are explained in the Prefaces of such books, and a detailed description of the same may be seen in English: "The Solesmes Transcriptions into Modern Musical Notation," by Dom A. Mocquereau. The specimens shown in the table of neums will enable the reader to understand the examples given in these pages.

# Application of Tonic Sol-Fa Principles to the Gregorian Notation.

There is no difficulty in reading the ordinary Plainsong notation according to the same principles which Tonic Solfaists employ in reading the staff notation. As there is no key-signature, the clef at once gives us the position of Doh, and from that the other notes are found in the usual way. In order, however, that the mental effect may really correspond to the names of the notes, a slight change is desirable in the case of two classes of melodies. One class of melodies ends on Ray, another on Fah, but the mental effect of these final notes is in reality that of Lah and Doh respectively. These melodies make a fairly frequent use of a flat before Te. They might be printed, therefore, with a flat in the signature, a natural being used for all the notes of the position in question that are not marked with a flat now. This is what we would advise the Tonic Sol-faist to imagine. The practical rule, then, might be formulated thus:

If a melody ends on Ray or Fah, call Fah Doh, singing Fe instead of Fah, except when there is a flat marked in the

particular phrase.

Sometimes, however, when the Fe is rather frequent, it might be desirable to adopt the "perfect" plan for modulations, by calling Soh Doh, which means, of course, a return to the actual notation. Thus, for instance, the Gradual-Verse of the Fourth Sunday of Advent might be sol-faed thus:



The Choirmaster should determine beforehand where these transitions are to be made. It may be well to mention that in the Introits the note to be looked for as the final note, is the last note of the Antiphon, that is, the one before the portion marked Ps..

# CHAPTER IV.

# Plainsong Tonality.

In modern music there are two Modes, the modes of Do and La, their essence being that Do or La respectively are the "tonics", i. e. the tones to which all the other tones of the melody are referred, and from the relation to which they receive their peculiar effect. In Plainsong, somewhat in the same way, any of the seven tones of the natural scale may be taken as tonics. This would give seven modes. But according to the mediæval theory, only four modes are distinguished, those of Re, Mi, Fa, and Sol. The modes of the remaining three tones, La, Si, and Do, are considered as modifications of those lying a fifth lower, their scales being identical with those of the notes a fifth lower, with the flattened form of Si, thus:

- I. La Si Do Re Mi Fa Sol La
- = Re Mi Fa Sol La Sib Do Re
- II. Si Do Re Mi Fa Sol La Si
- = Mi Fa Sol La Sip Do Re Mi
- III. Do Re Mi Fa Sol La Si Do
  - = Fa Sol La Sib Do Re Mi Fa

The four modes of Re, Mi, Fa, and Sol, are each subdivided into two classes, according to the compass of the melodies. In one class, called authentic, the normal compass is considered to be from the tonic, or fundamental note, to its octave; in the other, called plagal, from a fourth below to a fifth above the fundamental note. This theory of the compass is not fully borne out by the melodies themselves, but will serve to give a rough idea of the distinctions.

The modes, then, are counted thus:

Besides the fundamental note, there is one other note considered as of great importance. This is called the Dominant. The Dominant of the various modes will be found in the table below. The Dominant is very prominent in Psalmody, inasmuch as it forms the reciting-note of the Psalmtones. But it may also be observed as having a great influence on the structure of the Gregorian melodies. If we examine the typical melodies given below, we shall find the following: In the Introit Gaudeamus of the first mode, the intonation is evidently suggested by the interval Re-La, Tonic-Dominant, and the La remains prominent at least during the next phrase: omnes in Domino. In the example of the second mode the Fa is most prominent throughout. In the third example, we see again how the intonation, after circling round the fundamental note, rises to the Dominant, and the melody rests on the same note in the phrase : quia misit Dominus. The fourth example does not, indeed, show the La very prominent. One could only point to its forming the culminating point of a few melodic groups. But the fifth melody shows the dominating character of the Do again very clearly, and in the sixth the La will be found a rather important note. In the seventh, the intonation again reveals the interval Tonic-Dominant, Sol-Re, and the Re remains prominent for one or two phrases more, though in the rest of the melody the Do appears to occupy a place of greater importance. In the eighth example, finally, the dominating position of Do is again unmistakable throughout.

Table of Modes.

No	Name.	Character.	Range.	Final.	Dominant.
I. III. IV.	Dorian Hypodorian Phrygian Hypophrygian	Authentic Plagal Authentic Plagal	DEFGABCD ABCDEFGA EFGABCDE BCDEFGAB	D. RE.	A. La. F. Fa. C. Ut. A. La.
V. VI. VII. VIII.	Lydian Hypolydian Mixolydian Hypomixolydian	Authentic Plagal Authentic Plagal	FGABCDEF CDEFGABC GABCDEFG DEFGABCD	F. FA.	C. Ut. A. La. D. Re. C. Ut.

It will be seen from the above table that the Gregorian melodies are also known by names taken from the classical Greek theory of music, namely; Dorian, Phrygian, Lydian, and Mixolydian, the Plagal modes being characterized by the prefix Hypo. It must be mentioned, however, that the Greek modes corresponding to these names are not identical with the Gregorian melodies designated by them, the difference being accounted for by some misunderstanding of the mediæval theorists. The Greeks used the names in the same order, but began with E, and proceeded downwards. Hence we have, in Greek music:

DORIAN: E D C B A G F E
PHRYGIAN: D C B A G F E D
LYDIAN: C B A G F E D C
MIXOLYDIAN: B A G F E D C B

Care must be taken, therefore, when these names are met with, to ascertain whether they are used in the Greek or the mediæval sense.

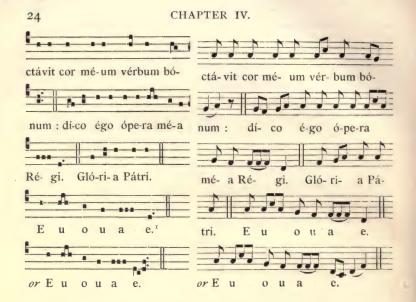
#### The First Mode.

Its scale (Do Clef on 4th line):



Typical melody: Introit of the Assumption.





#### The Second Mode.

Its scale (Fa clef on third line):



Typical melody, Mass " Pro Pace ".

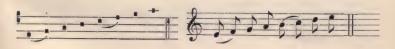


<sup>&#</sup>x27; The letters E u o u a e are the vowels of the final words of the doxoogy: sæculórum, Amen.

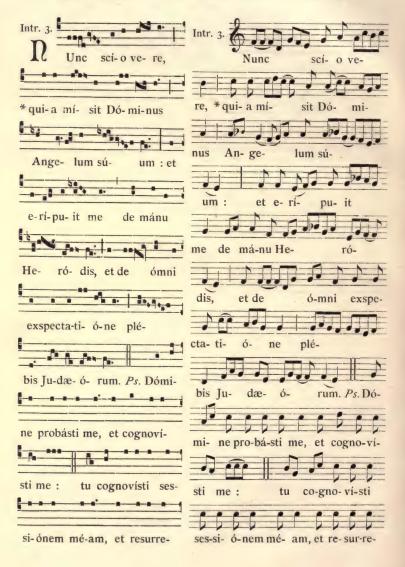


The Third Mode.

Its scale, (Ut clef on 4th line):



Typical piece. Introit of Feast of Saints Peter and Paul.





The Fourth Mode.

Its scale (Ut clef ou fourth line):



Typical piece. Alleluia of the Mass "De Beata."



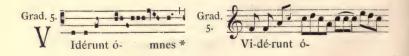


The Fifth Mode.

Its scale (Ut clef on third line):



Typical piece. Gradual of Christmas Day (Third Mass).





The Sixth Mode.

Its scale (Ut clef on fourth line):



Typical piece. Offertory of the Common for the Dedication of a Church.





#### The Seventh Mode.

Its scale (Ut clef on third line):



Typical piece. Introit of Ascension Day.





The Eighth Mode.

Its scale (Ut clef on third or fourth line):



Typical piece. Alleluia of Ascension Day.





# CHAPTER V.

# Rhythm.

The question of Rhythm is of primary importance to the Plainsong student, and he should spare no pains to gain a clear idea of this part of his subject, for it is Rhythm that gives Plainsong one of its most characteristic charms. A detailed theoretical study of the question, however, is not necessary for the average executant, who will sufficiently grasp the practical side of the question by ear, aided by a few general principles; but anyone who takes the trouble to go deeper into the matter, will be repaid by the new light the study will bring him.

In order not to weary the student with all the details of a complicated subject, we give here only the general principles of Rhythm, and some practical rules to secure the proper effect. The reader who may wish to pursue this study, is referred to Part II. of this volume, where he will find a detailed account of the principles underlying Rhythm in general, and Plainsong Rhythm in particular.

Rhythm may be defined as the ebb and flow of sound. It is the lifegiving principle of melody, the *sine qua non* of pleasing sound.

Rhythm is of two kinds, strict and free.

Strict rhythm is employed in poetry and modern music, and is characterised by the regular recurrence of a metrical stress.

Free, or mixed rhythm is the rhythm of prose and of Plainsong. It is distinguished by a recurring rhythmical stress dividing the composition into feet of two or three beats, but the stress in this case does not occur regularly.

Rhythm consists, then, in the flowing and harmonious movement of musical sound, and this depends on the proper partitioning off of the parts of a melody, since a rhythmical whole can be the result only of rhythmical parts. The mind in singing or reading needs a resting-place after every two or three syllables, and these resting-places mark the rhythmical feet. Thus Rhythm is, according to the classical definition," the order of movement," a succession of rises and falls,

of beginnings and endings. The rhythmical sense is brought out mainly by the endings, since they alone complete the movement. These endings are of relative value, according to the importance of the rhythmic fall which they conclude; they do not necessarily include the notion of pause, but they are, as it were, the footfalls of the Rhythm, which alights there and thence takes a new spring. Thus in a musical phrase the Rhythm simply leans or bends on certain syllables, on others it makes an almost imperceptible pause, on others a decided pause, on others again, at the end of a phrase, a long pause.

In every smallest rhythmical unit, therefore, we have two parts: one which moves towards the following, and a second towards which the first moves, and which, therefore, marks the end. The first part is called Arsis, the second, Thesis.

The Thesis is also called accent (accented note). But it should be clearly understood that "accent" here is not to be taken in the sense of the modern word-accent. This is a stress accent, an increase in strength of tone, produced by greater pressure of breath. We take accent in the sense of prominence of some kind given to a tone. This accent may or may not be greater stress. Its essence is that it marks, in some way, the term of the movement.

It is acknowledged as a fundamental law that all rhythmic movement is either binary or ternary, that is to say, that a new accent is necessary, at every second or third note. When there are more than two notes leading up to a Thesis, our mind groups them again into smaller divisions, taking one of the notes as a subsidiary point of rest. (Such subsidiary points of rest are marked in the Solesmes editions by the ictus-sign .).

In plainsong all single notes are equal in value. are no divisions of the normal time-value such as we find in modern music, where a crotchet, for example, may have the

following equivalents:



The pratical result of this principle is that smoothness, evenness, roundness, which are among the chief charms of the chant. Thus, in a phrase such as the following, the groups of notes must not be sung rapidly, as if equivalent to the single notes, but with their full value.



The lengthening of notes will be treated farther on.

With regard to the position of the Thesis in *syllabic* chants, it may be stated, as a general rule, that the Rhythm of such pieces is usually determined by the accompanying words. A singer should not, however, allow himself to be fettered by the text to the detriment of the musical sense of a passage, for there will be cases in which the melody must be left to take things its own way.

The following considerations will give us an idea of the rhythmical value of the *neums*.

Let us take the following little melody:



It seems natural that the note on which a syllable enters should be accented as compared with the following notes on the same syllable. In the case of the second syllable in the above example, there is an additional reason. The main movement in this little melody is from the first syllable to the second. The first note on the second syllable is, therefore, the term of this movement; it must consequently have a certain weight. We may state, then, as a general rule:

Rule. The first note of every neum is accented.

As to the final notes of the two neums in the example, we must remark a difference. The final note of the first

neum, that on ve, leads over to the next syllable, and in accordance with its position should be light and short. The final note on the second syllable, on the other hand, forms the end of the melody; it is, therefore, long, and has considerable weight. The following rules may, therefore, be laid down, regarding the final note of a neum:

Rule. The final note of a neum on a syllable followed by another syllable of the same word, or by another word closely connected with the preceding, is light and short.

Rule. The final note of a neum on a syllable forming the end of any rhythmical division, is long and weighty, — its length and weight being, of course, in proportion to the extent and importance of the division.

When we have groups of neums, they must be treated by analogy of the single neums. Hence we may state the

following rules:

Rule. The final note of a neum leading on to another neum is light and short.

Rule. The final note of a neum forming the ending of any kind of division is long and weighty.

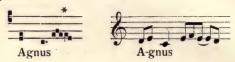
The following notes have regularly the rhythmical stress. All notes marked by the ictus sign (\*), whether they occur (a) in the course of a neum, or (b) at the end of a neum.



Culminant virgas, whether they occur a) in the middle, or b) at the end of neums, have the accent.



The first note of a pressus, should have a stress-accent of marked vigour.



Pause or duration. It has been said already that in Plainsong all notes are theoretically equal, i. e. have of themselves an uniform time-value, but this value may be modified by various causes. These modifying influences give us the element of duration or pause required for the production of rhythm.

Rule I. The simple mora vocis. This is the name given to the smallest pause, since it implies not even a cessation of sound, but requires a delay of the voice on the note at which it occurs, and which must be held for the value of two ordinary notes. The note must be sustained softly. The mora vocis is marked, in the Solesmes editions, by a dot placed after the note which it affects:



This manner of marking these slight pauses enables those who do not know Latin to make intelligent divisions in the text. When one Cantor is singing alone, he may disregard some of these pauses to follow his own artistic sentiment, but to ensure a perfect *ensemble* with a number of voices, their observance is obligatory.

Breath should not be taken at the simple mora vocis.

N. B. In plainsong editions which have no rhythmical points, the place of the *mora vocis* is shown by the spaces dividing the neums one from another; wherever there is room between the neums for the insertion of a note, the *mora vocis* is to be observed.

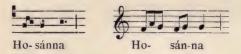


Rule II. The next pause, corresponding to the pause at a member of a phrase, is marked by a dot after the note it follows and by a quarter-bar.

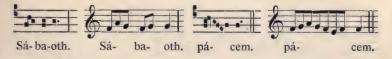


The dotted note is held on for the time of two notes. If the singer finds it necessary to breathe at such places, he should do so rapidly, and in that case, should shorten the dotted note a little, taking from it the time required for the breath.

Rule III. The third pause, marking the end of a phrase, is shown by a dotted note followed by a half-bar. Breath may always be taken at such places.



Rule IV. The fourth pause marks the end of a sentence. It is shown by a dot after the final note and a full bar, or, at the end of a piece, by a dot and a double bar.



Rule V. Besides the above pauses, a mere breathing-place is sometimes marked by a comma (\*) placed above the stave; the note preceding the comma must not be prolonged.



Rule VI. There is one further sign, viz. a line placed under or over a note or neum, and indicating that the

note or group thus marked is to be sung with a slight ritardando.



The observance of these rules should enable the choirmaster to produce a good rhythmical effect without which Plainsong is no better than a body without a soul. But the student can scarcely hope to obtain satisfactory results from mere dry rules. He should study the rhythm practically by listening to a competent choir, accounting to himself the while by means of his rules for the various effects which he hears; he will find this exercise most profitable, and a great saving of time.

The following example illustrates all the pauses.





It will be convenient to group here a few practical remarks, which may help the student in his interpretation of Plainsong, though it has been owned that complete instruction cannot be conveyed by any book, but must be gained, in a large degree, from hearing the melodies intelligently rendered.

Plainsong pieces may be regarded, from a practical point of view, as divided into syllabic and neumatic, — the former having only one note, or rare groups of two notes, to each syllable, while the latter have groups of notes on most syllables.

Syllabic pieces. In singing these, the rules of good reading are to be observed; that is to say: the words of the text are to be accented according to the rules already laid down, and their meaning carefully brought out by means of pauses wherever the sense so requires. It must be remembered that staccato singing is altogether excluded in Plainsong, and that the words of the text must be sung so as to give the impression of flowing sound, i. e. legato.

## Neumatic pieces.

There remains the question of how to treat the long and beautiful passages which are frequently met with in the more elaborate compositions, such as Graduals, Alleluia-Verses, and Offertories. As a strict matter of fact, everything, even in such elaboration, has to be reduced to the universal law of all Rhythm, that is, to binary and ternary

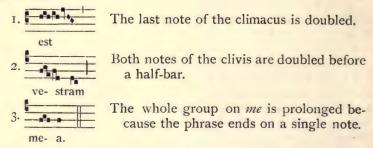
fractions, but such divisions (under a careful Choirmaster) can almost be left to look after themselves, since it is in the nature of things to make them. As we have seen in the previous rules, the groups of notes are our best practical guides. A few words on the varying rhythmical value of the different groups may be useful to supplement the rules already given.

It has been laid down as a general principle, that the first note of a neum is to be accented, especially when it begins a syllable. The importance, however, of such accent depends on the position of the group and on the value of the syllable on which it occurs. For example, in the following Alleluia, the first note of the group on le will be weaker than the first of the group on lu, the latter being the accented syllable of

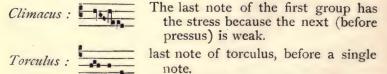
the word.

Alle- lú- ia.

When a phrase, or any other rhythmical division, ends with a group, that group must be prolonged either wholly or partially, according to the importance of the division at which it occurs.



Groups of three notes have often a secondary accent. For example, in the three cases given below, there is a slight accent on the last note of each of the groups.



Porrectus:

last note of porrectus, before a single note.

Groups of four or more notes must always have a secondary accent, the importance of which will vary according to its position.

## Groups of four notes:

Climacus

10,000

Stress on 1st and 3rd notes of climacus.

Pessubpunctis:



on 1st and 3rd of the group followed by another note.

# Groups of five or six notes:

Climacus :



on 1st and 3rd if followed by another group. Otherwise on 1st 3rd and 5th.

Pessubpunctis



(a) on 1st and 4th before a new group. (b) on 1st, 3rd and 5th before pause.

The phrase of the melody must, moreover, be clearly marked, and in doing this the singers must be careful not to separate notes or groups which have a distinct connection (melodic or rhythmic) with each other. The foregoing passage, for example, is one musical idea, and must be sung as such.<sup>1</sup> The pauses required for distinguishing its parts, or for taking breath, must not break it up into fragments.

It is on account of the long melodic passages in Plainsong, that the proper management of the breath is a matter of such paramount importance, for nothing so ruins the chant as a gasping manner of singing. The leading voices of a choir can, with care, so arrange as not to breathe at the same place as the main body of singers, and thus awkward breaks in the melody may be avoided.

A word may here be said on a point which is a serious trial to many Englishmen when first they encounter it, i. e.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See above, pp. 27 and 28, the word Genitria.

the not unfrequent presence of a number of notes on a weak syllable, while the accented syllable has perhaps only one note. This is not the place to go into the archæology of the subject, which has been treated of elsewhere, but we may point out that the whole matter is one of rhythmical fitness, connected with that most important musical factor, the cadence. There are in Plainsong melodies many well-known cadences, which cannot be dislocated with impunity. Take,

for example, the familiar figure \_\_\_\_\_ If, instead of a

dissyllable, we have at this cadence a trissyllable, with a weak penultimate, the invariable custom is, to fit the last two syllables to the cadence-figure, and to insert a note, before

the figure, for the redundant syllable, thus:

ear that has once felt the smoothness of this arrangement, will prefer it very much to the following:

Do-minus

At any rate, if we are to sing the chant of the MSS., we must accept the practice as a fact which has to be dealt with. Practically, what is the best thing to do? A beginner, full of respect for his tonic accent, will lay great stress on the accented syllable, perhaps he will even prolong it. Nothing could be more unfortunate, or more calculated to defeat its own end. An accent when prolonged, or pronounced with undue stress, is thereby separated from the rest of the word, and results in the oft-quoted: do minus, for Dóminus. The most effectual way of solving the difficulty is also the simplest; it consists in giving a quick, sharp accent on the tonic syllable, and going on at once, and softly, to the troublesome syllable, for the crucial point occurs at the junction of the syllables. The ear soon becomes accustomed to these arrangements, and feels that any other syllabic collocation would shock it far more than the seeming anomaly

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Gregorian Music. Chap. IX.

used to do. It is well to reflect, when confronted with facts which do not fit in with our present ideas, that the men who composed the Gregorian melodies had at least as strong a sense of accent as we are likely to possess, and that if their methods do not commend themselves to our minds, the fault may perhaps lie with us. There is plenty of evidence that in other circumstances they were at pains to consider the claims of the accent.

Finally, constant care must be taken to ensure the most perfect *legato* effect in the neumatic passages, and to preserve the purity of the vowel-sound on which the notes occur, from beginning to end.

Speed. With regard to the tempo at which Plainsong is to sung, there are several points to be considered. The general rate of speed must be determined, to a large extent, by the size of the Church, and by its acoustic difficulties, or facilities, as the case may be. In a large building, the speed will be less than in a small one; and if the acoustics are very good, the Choirmaster may have to take the chant at a moderate speed, to avoid the resonance causing an overlapping of the sounds. In less favourable conditions, the movement will have to be a little quicker. Another point which influences the speed is the number of voices in a choir. A large body of singers, especially if they are placed at any distance from one another, will have more difficulty in keeping together than a small number. A medium speed is, therefore, necessary under such circumstances.

In syllabic chant, the rate of deliberate public reading will give the normal tempo.

In neumatic pieces, the speed should vary a little according to the character of the different pieces. The following rough distinction may be made: The Introit, Alleluia-verse, and Communion, in the Mass, as well as the Antiphons of the Divine Office, should be sung rather briskly. The more elaborate parts of the Mass music, (Graduals and Offertories) should be taken in a rather graver tempo, though the Verse of the Gradual, being reserved for the Cantors, may be sung more quickly than the body of the piece.

# CHAPTER VI.

# Psalmody.

#### ON PSALMODY IN GENERAL.

The term PSALMODY <sup>1</sup> is applied to the chant of the psalms and of the canticles used by the Church.

The psalms are divided into verses, and each verse consists of two distinct parts, marked in the liturgical books by an asterisk (\*).

Each of the eight modes of plainsong has a special musical formula which is repeated at each verse. To these eight tones must be added a ninth, — the *peregrinus* tone.

The choice of the tone is determined by a short melody, called an **Antiphon**, which is sung before the psalm; the mode of the antiphon decides the mode of the psalm, and consequently the formula to be used.

In a complete psalm-tone we find the following parts:—a. an **Intonation** (initium, inchoatio);—b. a **Dominant** or reciting-note;—c. **Cadences**,—one, called the **Mediation** (mediatio), occurring in the middle of a verse; the other, called the **Termination** or final, appearing at the end of a verse.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The whole of this chapter is from DOM MOCQUEREAU'S Petit Traité de Psalmodie, an English translation of which may be had under the title of Rules for Psalmody.

# THE EIGHT PSALM-TONES.

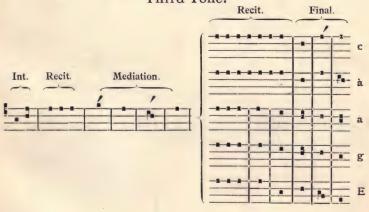




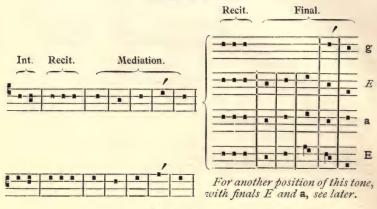
#### Second Tone.



#### Third Tone.







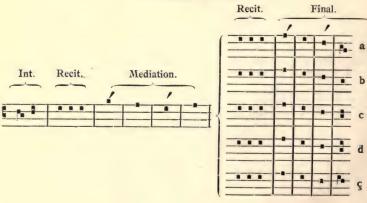
#### Fifth Tone.



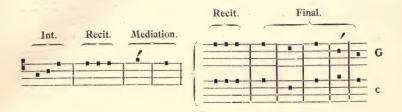
## Sixth Tone.



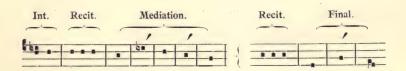
## Seventh Tone.



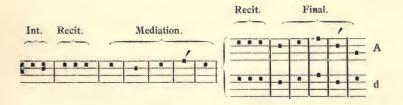
### Eighth Tone.



# Tonus Peregrinus.



## Fourth Tone transposed.

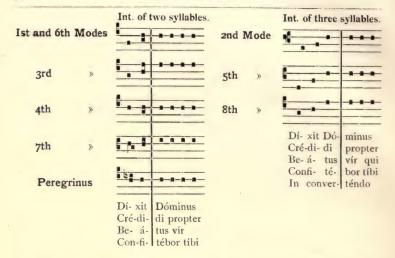


### INTONATION.

The *Intonation* is a musical phrase at the beginning of a psalm, connecting the end of the antiphon with the dominant.

It consists of two or three notes or groups, fitted to as many syllables.

Grammar. - 4.



When the intonation consists of two notes or groups, the first two syllables of a verse are set to those two notes or groups; when the intonation has three notes or groups, the first three syllables are set to those three notes or groups.

This rule admits of no exception; the arrangement of the notes of an intonation may not be altered, whatever be the

syllables which have to be sung to them.

These intonations, which are called *festive*, are employed for the first verse only of each psalm; the other verses begin on the reciting-note, *recto tono*. But for the *Magnificat* and *Benedictus* (even in the Office of the Dead) the festive intonation is repeated at each verse.

At Complin, and in the Office of the Dead (except at the *Magnificat*), the psalms begin on the reciting-note. This is

the ferial intonation.

The intonation of the *Magnificat* follows the ordinary form in the 1st, 3rd, 4th, 5th, and 6th tones. In the remaining modes it is as follows:



In the 2nd and 8th modes, the intonation shown above is used for the first verse alone; the following verses have the festive intonation.



In the 7th mode, all the verses have the same form of intonation as the first.

#### THE TENOR OR RECITING-NOTE.

The tenor includes all the unisonous notes between the intonation and the mediation, and between the mediation and the final. In the eight regular modes both halves of a psalm-tone have the dominant of their respective modes for reciting-note; the tone *peregrinus* has *la* for the tenor of its first half, and *sol* for the second.

In singing the tenor, attention must be paid to the rules of good reading, and especially to the accentuation of words. As a rule no pause is allowed in the course of the reciting; the movement must be so animated as to allow each half-verse to be sung in one breath.

A few exceptions to the above rule are marked in some books by an obelus (†). In monastic choir-books this sign denotes a fall (either of a second or of a third, according to the mode), hence this pause is called the *flex*. The flex is not employed in Roman psalmody, but the note before the obelus may be slightly prolonged, and a quick breath may be taken.

Rules for adapting words to Cadences. The reader will have remarked that in the Table of Tones, given above, some Cadences have only one accent, while others have two. The Rules for both must now be given. <sup>1</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The rules for the shortened and broken mediations will be found in an appendix.

#### CADENCES OF ONE ACCENT.

(Five mediations. — Seven finals.)

THE ONLY RULE. NO EXCEPTION. — a. The last accented syllable of the text is sung to the accented note or group of the cadence. — b. The notes or groups preceding this accent are fitted each to a syllable. — There is no exception to this rule, which holds good for both mediations and finals.

Mediations: 2nd, 4th, 5th, 6th, and 8th Modes.

Finals: 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 6th, 8th, Peregrinus Modes.

### CADENCES OF TWO ACCENTS.

(Four mediations. — Two finals.)

Mediations: 1st, 3rd, 7th, and Peregrinus Modes.

Finals: 5th and 7th Modes.

THE ONLY RULE. The last two accents (tonic or secondary) of the text are set to the two accented notes of the cadence (mediation or final).

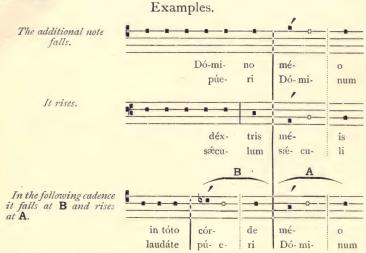
Consequently, these cadences can have only four regular forms; they cannot comprise more than six syllables.

- a) two dissyllables /. /.
- b) a dissyllable and a trisylable /. /..
- c) a trisyllable and a dissylable .....
- d) two trisyllables /.. /..

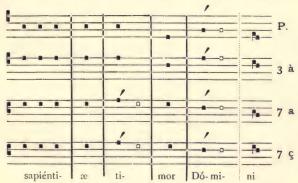
No note may be inserted between the two parts of these cadences; neither may any one of the four essential notes be suppressed.

It will be remarked that the cadences have as their original type a) for cadences of one accent: a dissylable, such as Deus; b) for cadences of two accents: two dissyllables, such as Deus meus. But other syllabic arrangements are frequently met with. The question then arises, which note of the cadence-melody is to be repeated for the added syllable?

Repeated notes in cadences of one syllable. The additional note is to be set to a note immediately following the accent-note, and the inserted note is the same (in pitch) as the note which begins the next syllable. If that note falls, the inserted note also falls; if that note rises, the inserted note also rises.



There is a special rule for four cadences ending with a clivis. In these, the additional note is the same as the accented note which immediately precedes it. Thus:



The mediation of the Third tone presents a little difficulty in the adaptation of syllables, as when, for example, the last word of the half-verse is accented on the ante-penultimate. The note required for the additional syllable is inserted before the clivis of the last accent, not after that group.



Secondary accents.

The secondary accents are important to remember in connection with the cadences of Psalm-tones, for they frequently come into use. The following are the rules for the place of the secondary accent:

- I. Prepositions and conjunctions, which have frequently no tonic accent, have a secondary accent whenever the syllable capable of receiving an accent corresponds to a strong beat of the rhythm: súper, ínter, átque, secúndum, quóniam.
- 2. In long words the second syllable before the tonic accent has a secondary accent, whenever it corresponds to a strong beat of the rhythm: inimicus, redémptionem, justificationibus.
- 3. A monosyllable, declinable or indeclinable, falling on a strong beat of the rhythm is always accented; otherwise a monosyllable has no accent.
- 4. The last syllable of a word ending with a dactyl has a secondary accent when it falls on a strong beat of the rhythm. Thus: génuí, propósitúm.

The use of secondary accents simplifies such syllabic endings as the following, which have been the subject of much discussion. Verses ending in a monosyllable preceded by a word accented on the antepenultimate are treated as follows, that is, the last four syllables of such endings are set to the last four notes or groups of the musical cadence.



At the beginning of each antiphon, in the Solesmes books, is a *figure* showing the mode of the piece, and a *letter* indicating the psalm-ending which is to be employed with that antiphon. For example: Aña. I. D.

la si ut re mi fa sol

Capitals: ABCDEFG

Small letters: a b c d e f g

Modified letters: à ç E

A word on the signification of these letters. Capitals are used if the last note of the ending is also the final of the mode. Small letters are employed when the psalm-tone ends on any note other than the final of the mode. If, in any mode, two psalm-tones end on the same note, modified letters are used for one of them.

At the end of each antiphon the final is again specified, this time by the notes themselves. Under the notes are the letters e u o u a e, the vowels of the words sæculorum. Amen.

## Solemn Chant of the Magnificat.

(Ornate cadences of one accent.)

There is a more solemn form of the 1st, 2nd, and 8th modes (first half of the verse). This may be sung ad libitum on greater feasts.



In the 1st mode, the intonation is the same as for the simpler form.

In the 2nd and 8th modes, the festive intonation is repeated for every verse.

## PAUSES IN THE PSALMODY.

Three kinds of pauses may occur in the psalms:

- I. at the flex,
- 2. at the mediation,
- 3. between the verses, and before the repetition of the antiphon.

PAUSE AT THE FLEX. The movement of the psalmody should as a rule be so animated as to allow of each half-verse (including the mediation or final, as the case may be) to be sung in one breath. If the first half of a verse be too

long to admit of this, it is subdivided by a pause called the flex †. At this place a fresh breath may be taken, but the pause must not be so long as to interrupt the flow of the psalmody.

We may express the length of the flex-pause in modern music thus: taking the quaver as the average length of notes in the tenor, we make the note immediately before the obelus (†) a crotchet. A quick breath must be taken on this crotchet beat, to enable the singers to reach the mediation. The pause which occurs in the *second* half of some verses, in the Roman use, is to be regulated in the same way.



PAUSE AT THE MEDIATION. — The length of this pause must be exactly equivalent in value to the last cadence of the mediation. This last foot, repeated mentally, will give the precise length of the pause.



PAUSE BETWEEN THE VERSES, AND BEFORE THE REPETITION OF THE ANTIPHON. — This pause equals one crotchet; it is therefore one beat shorter than the mediation-pause. In other words, it equals, not the last cadence, but the last syllable (or note, i. e. a crotchet). The last two beats of the final, added to the pause, make a bar of triple time, after which the choir takes up the next verse, or (if the verse be the last of the psalm) the antiphon.



## CHAPTER VII.

## Hymnody.

Hymns form so important a part of the Divine Office that a word must be said about their structure and execution.

The Church hymns are often called Ambrosians, because St. Ambrose was probably the first to introduce hymnsinging in the West, by teaching his people the hymns which he had himself composed.

In the liturgical hymns we must not look for an application of the rules of prosody. The earliest of these compositions belong to a period when the laws of quantity were practically disused and their rhythm is to be found rather in a regular recurrence of *accents* than in the classical combination of long and short syllables.

A variety of metres is employed in the Church hymns. The commonest form, and the one in which St. Ambrose wrote, is:

I. Iambic tetrameter, known as Long Measure. This consists of eight syllables, or four feet. It has a slight accent on the second syllable, and the principal accent on the sixth syllable.

## Nunc Sáncte nobis Spíritus

The strophe is made up of four such lines or verses.

If the melody of the hymn is syllabic, it should be sung in the movement of deliberate reading, and the accented syllables should be strongly marked, but not as a rule prolonged. The strophe should be divided into two parts by a clear pause after the second line. Only a very slight pause should be made between the first and second, and between the third and fourth lines. If the melody is of a florid character, it should be sung according to the general rules of execution.

II. *Iambic trimeter* hymns have twelve syllables, or six iambic feet. A slight accent is made on the fourth syllable, and the principal accent falls on the tenth syllable. A *mora* 

vocis pause should be made at the caesura which occurs after the fifth syllable :

Beáte Pástor, \* Pétre clémens áccipe.

(Hymn for Feast of St. Peter's Chair.)

III. *Trochaic* hymns. The most familiar of this metre is a strophe of six verses or lines; these verses are made up alternately of eight and seven syllables. The eight-syllable lines have their minor accent on the third, and their principal accent on the seventh syllable. In the seven-syllable lines the accents occur on the first and fifth syllables.

Pange língua gloriósi Córporis mystérium.

IV. Other *Trochaic* hymns. *Stabat Mater*: each strophe has two verses of eight syllables (four feet), and a third verse of seven syllables (three feet and a half). The accents fall, in the first two lines, on the third and seventh syllables, in the third line, on the first and fifth syllables.

Stabat Máter dolorósa, Juxta Crúcem lacrymósa, Dúm pendebat Fílius.

Ave maris stella: the strophe has four verses of six syllables or three feet each. The accents fall on the third (secondary accent), and on the fifth syllable (principal accent). Ave máris Stélla.

V. Sapphic hymns. The scheme of this strophe is: Three Sapphic verses followed by an Adonius; or, in other words, three verses of eleven syllables, with minor and principal accents on the fourth and tenth syllables respectively, and a verse of five syllables with accents on the first and fourth. The long verses have a mora vocis pause at the caesura (fifth syllable); a very slight pause is made after the first verse, and a good pause after the second. The last two verses are sung without a break.

Ut queant láxis resonare fíbris Mira gestórum Solve pollúti famuli tuórum: Sáncte Joánnes.

(Nativity of St. John Baptist.)

VI. Asclepiadic hymns. The strophe consists of three verses of twelve syllables each, followed by a verse of eight syllables. The long verses have their accents on the third, seventh, and tenth syllables, and the caesura pause at the sixth; the short verse has its accent on the third and sixth syllables.

Sanctórum meritis
Pangámus socii
Gliscens fért animus
Victorúm genus óptimum.

Elision in Hymns. By Elision is meant the leaving-out of a vowel, or of a syllable ending with a vowel and m at the end of a word when the following word begins with a vowel or h. The elision is observed in this way: the first of the colliding vowels is (as a rule) omitted. When the word est follows a vowel, or a vowel and m, the e of est is elided. In the Solesmes editions the vowels to be elided are printed in italics.

On account of their metrical character, the Plainsong hymns have a stamp of their own, which separates them in a sense from the melodies set to prose texts, and approximates them to the rhythm of modern music. There is however a freedom in their movement, a rhythmical swing, which can scarcely be described in dry rules.

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## CHAPTER VIII.

## Accompaniment.

However well equipped and trained a choir may be, all its good points may be obscured by an unsuitable accompaniment. In fact the organist can, in a large measure, either make or mar his choir. It must be owned, however, that the accompanist of Plainsong has to contend with many difficulties. And primarily he is met by the fact that the ancient melodies were never intended to be accompanied, Plainsong being pure melody. The purist will still find his best enjoyment of the chant when it is sung unaccompanied, but to most a becoming accompaniment gives an added charm.

The question is: what kind of accompaniment is becoming; The obvious answer is: that which is most in keeping with the character of the chant, and which least injures its most notable characteristics. Such an accompaniment will imply respect for a) the tonality and b) the rhythm of the chant.

Regard for tonality will lead the organist to avoid as far as possible in his harmonies all notes extraneous to the mode, and to eschew entirely chromatic progressions. "Nature and Art", it has been well said, "equally abhor a hybrid, and chromatic Plainsong is a mere hybrid." I

To safeguard the rhythm requires considerable skill, and, for the perfection of an accompaniment, sympathy on the part of the player. He must know how to accentuate by his harmonies the more important notes of the melody (following as guides the rhythmical signs given in the notation), and how to pass over unimportant notes. He must support the voices, without overpowering them, and must be ever ready to humour the varying needs of the choir.

The accompaniment should be unobstrusive and restrained, but it need not on that account be tame. A sympathetic accompanist will know how to put life and energy into his playing, and how to inspirit his choir without ruling it.

Elements of Plainsong, p. 87.

Plainsong should be accompaned softly and it should never be possible for the hearers to wonder whether the singers are accompanying the organ, or the organ the singers. A loud accompaniment has many dangers; it covers the voices, it injures singers by causing them to force their voices, and it makes a light and free execution impossible.

A book of accompaniments for the Common and Proper of the Mass is in preparation at Solesmes.

Accompaniments for the Ordinary, by DOM MICHAEL HORN O. S. B. may be had from Messrs Breitkoff & Haertel, and a series of accompaniments by Mr. Giulio Bas is being published in monthly parts by Messrs. Desclée, Lefebure & Co., Rome and Tournai.



## CHAPTER IX.

## The Sung Parts of Mass and Vespers.

The portions of Holy Mass which the Rubrics direct to be sung are: the Introit, the Kyrie, the Gloria, the Gradual, the Alleluia Verse (replaced, at certain times by the Tract), the Sequence, the Credo, the Offertory, the Sanctus, the Agnus Dei, and the Communion. These pieces make up the Ordinary and Proper of the Mass. To the Ordinary belong the Kyrie, the Gloria, the Credo, the Sanctus, and the Agnus Dei; to the Proper, the Introit, Gradual, Alleluia Verse, Tract, Sequence, Offertory and Communion.

### Proper of the Mass.

The Introit. The chants of the Mass open with the Introit. The Introit is an Antiphon, generally taken from the Psalms, and followed by a verse of a Psalm and the Gloria Patri, after which the Introit is repeated. The Cantor or Cantors intone the piece (up to the double bar or the asterisk, which marks off the intonation), the whole choir takes it up, and sings it through to the double-bar at the end. The Cantors sing the first half of the Psalm-verse, the choir the second. The Cantors sing the Gloria Patri; the choir, the Sicut erat, after which the Introit is sung again as before the Psalm.

The Gradual. This piece received its name from the fact that it was sung from the steps (gradus) of an ambo. In early times the Gradual was sung as a Responsory, that is, the part before the V. was sung through by the Cantor and repeated by the choir; the Cantor then sang the V. after which the choir repeated a part or the whole of the Responsory. At present the piece is sung through without repetition.

The Cantors having intoned the Gradual, the choir continues it as far as the double-bar. The verse (marked V. in the books) is sung by the Cantors, the choir joining in only at the close, where double-bars or an asterisk appear in the melody.

The Alleluia. The Gradual is followed immediately by a double Alleluia and a Verse. The Cantors sing the word Alleluia, up to the neuma which follows it; the choir repeats Alleluia and adds the neuma, vocalizing it on the vowel a, the last of the word. The Cantors sing the verse, which the choir takes up at the double-bar shortly before the end. The Cantors repeat the Alleluia, and the choir adds the neuma.

N. B. In Paschal Time, from Easter Saturday until Saturday in Whitsun week, the Gradual is omitted, and in its place is sung an Alleluia Verse as described above; at such times the Alleluia is not repeated after the first verse, but another Alleluia is sung by the Cantors, and followed (without repetition of the word) by the neuma sung by the whole choir. The Cantors sing the verse up to the last phrase, when all join in. The Cantors then repeat the second Alleluia, and the choir adds the neuma.

The Tract. From Septuagesima to Easter, and in Masses of the Dead, the Alleluia is replaced by the Tract, which generally consists of portions of a Psalm, and which may be sung, like a Psalm, by alternate groups of singers. It is intoned by the Cantor, and taken up by his side of the choir. For the last phrase of the piece, marked off by a double-bar

or an asterisk, the whole choir unites.

The Sequence. This piece is so called because in the earliest form it was made up of the notes of the neuma following the Alleluia, which neuma was called Sequentia. Formerly there was a Sequence for almost every feast, but since the Reform of the Missal by St. Pius V, only five are in general use. The survivors are fortunately the most beautiful specimens of this kind of composition; they are: Victimæ Paschali for Easter, Veni Sancte Spiritus for Whit Sunday, Lauda Sion for Corpus Christi, Stabat Mater for the feast of the Seven Dolours, and Dies iræ for Masses of the Dead. The Sequence is essentially an alternate chant.

A Sequence following an Alleluia-verse causes an alteration in the way of singing the latter piece. The Alleluia is not sung *after* the verse immediately preceding the Sequence, since it is found, to its own notes, at the end of the Sequence.

For the history of the Sequence see: Introduction to the Winchester Troper, by Rev. W. H. FRERE. (H. Bradshaw Society.)

Grammar. - 5.

The Offertory. This piece, which is generally of an elaborate character, is intoned by the Cantor, and sung throughout by the full choir.

It should be begun immediately after the *Dominus vobis*cum Et cum spiritu tuo and *Oremus* which follow the *Credo*, or Gospel, as the case may be.

The Communion is properly an Antiphon, and it was in earlier times followed by a Psalm and repeated after the Psalm just as is done for Antiphons of the Office. It is intoned by the Cantors as soon as the Priest has received the Precious Blood, and is continued by the whole choir. A relic of the ancient manner of singing the Communion is preserved in the Mass for the Dead, where part of the Antiphon is repeated after the verse: Requiem.

### Ordinary of the Mass.

The Kyrie. The Kyrie immediately follows the Introit. Kyrie eleison is sung three times, Christe eleison three times, and again Kyrie eleison three times. This is an alternate chant. The Cantors intone the first Kyrie, which one division of the choir takes up; the second division takes the second Kyrie, and so on. The last eleison is sung by the full choir.

The Gloria in excelsis. As soon as the Kyrie is finished, the celebrant intones, if the rubrics so require: Gloria in excelsis Deo. This phrase must never be repeated by the choir. The Cantors continue: Et in terra etc. to the first bar, when one half of the choir joins in. The second half takes the: Laudanus Te, and so on alternately, the divisions being marked by double-bars. All sing Amen.

The Credo. The celebrant having intoned, if it is in the Mass, Credo in unum Deum, which must never be repeated, the Cantors sing: Patrem omnipotentem, and the rest of the Symbol is sung as just described for the Gloria.

The Sanctus. The triple Sanctus follows the Preface, of which indeed it is a part. The Cantors sing the first Sanctus, and the rest of the piece, to the Benedictus, is sung by the whole choir. After the Elevation, the Cantors intone Benedictus, and the choir continues to the end.

The Agnus Dei. As soon as the Pax Domini sit semper vobiscum and its response: Amen, have been sung, the Cantors intone Agnus Dei, and the choir continues the chant. Each Agnus Dei is thus intoned by the Cantors.

### The Responses at Mass.

The responses in a sung Mass are as follows:

- I. The response: Et cum spiritu tuo I to the Dominus vobiscum a) after the Gloria in excelsis, b) before the Gospel, c) after the Gospel or Creed, and d) before and after the Postcommunion.
- 2. The Amen after Collects and Postcommunions. Amen is sung on a monotone.
- 3. The Responses to the versicles preceding the Preface, which are sung to a special chant.

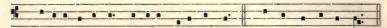
## A. - Solemn form.



### B. - Ferial Form.



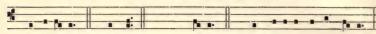
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This response is always sung on a monotone.



V. Grá-ti- as agámus Dómino Dé-o nóstro. R. Dígnum et jústum est.

The ferial tone is used on ferias and in Requiem Masses.

4. The Responses before and after the Pater noster.



... sæcu-lórum. R. Amen. ... tentatiónem. R. Sed líbera nos a má-lo.

5. The Responses Amen before, and Et cum spiritu tuo after, Pax Domini sit semper vobiscum.



R. Amen. Pax Dómini sit semper vobíscum. R. Et cum spí-ritu tu-o.

6. The Response to *Ite Missa est*, or *Benedicamus Domino*. Each setting of the Ordinary of the Mass has, as tone for these, the same melody as for the first Kyrie. It is becoming that the choir should answer in the tone just sung by the celebrant, whether it be one of those appointed in the Missal or the one belonging to the Mass sung by the choir.

In Masses for the Dead instead of the usual *Ite Missa est*, or *Benedicamus Domino*, the form is *Requiescant in pace*. R. Amen.

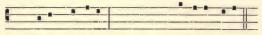
## Vespers.

The Office of Vespers consists, in the Roman rite, of five Psalms (each preceded and followed by an Antiphon), a little Chapter, a Hymn, a Versicle, the Canticle Magnificat (preceded and followed by an Antiphon like the Psalms), one or more Collects, the Benedicamus Domino, with its Response Deo gratias, and the suitable Anthem to our Blessed Lady.

Each Antiphon is intoned by one of the Clergy or by a Cantor, the choir continuing it. The Psalm is intoned (first half of first verse) by the Cantor and continued in alternate verses to the *Sicut erat* inclusively. The Antiphon is then again intoned by the cantor and sung through by the choir On Sundays in Paschal Time, there are no proper Antiphons,

but all five Psalms of Vespers are sung to an Alleluia, which, after the Psalms, is repeated three times.

At Vespers on Semidoubles, only the first phrase of each Antiphon is sung before the Psalm, but the whole Antiphon is sung after the Psalm. If the Antiphon begins with the first words of the Psalm which immediately follows it, the Cantor, in intoning the Psalm, does not repeat those words, but goes on where the Antiphon stopped. Thus, in Sunday Vespers:



Ant. Dixit Dóminus. Cantor: Dómino me-o.

The Hymn is intoned by the Celebrant, and sung in alternate verses by the two divisions of the choir.

The Versicle is sung by two Cantors, the Response by the whole choir.

The Magnificat Antiphon is intoned by the Celebrant, and sung in the manner already described for the other Antiphons.

The Benedicamus Domino is sung to settings which vary with the rank of the office. The Cantor sings the Benedicamus, the choir answers: Deo gratias.

The Office concludes with the singing of one of the four Anthems to Our Lady, which is intoned by the Celebrant, and continued in alternate verses by the choir. The Anthems vary as follows in the Liturgical seasons: Alma Redemptoris is sung from the Vespers of the Saturday before the first Sunday of Advent inclusively, to Vespers of the 2nd of February inclusively. Ave Regina is sung from Complin of the 2nd of February inclusively, till Easter. Regina Cali is sung from Complin of Holy Saturday inclusively, to first Vespers of Trinity Sunday exclusively. Salve Regina is sung from the first Vespers of Trinity Sunday inclusively, to Vespers of Saturday before the first Sunday of Advent exclusively.

After the Anthem has been sung, the Cantor intones the Versicle, to which the choir responds, and the Celebrant then sings the Collect for the season.

## CHAPTER X.

## The Liturgical Recitatives.

By Liturgical Recitatives are meant all the portions of the Mass and of the Divine Office which by the simplicity of their inflections are closely allied to reading. They include therefore: the Collect, Epistle, Gospel, Preface, Pater noster, Chapter, Lesson, and Versicle.

Any one who is familiar with the prayers of the Mass in the Latin text, must remark the rhythmical language of most of the liturgical pieces, — of the Collects, the Prefaces, etc. This rhythm becomes more striking when those pieces are sung, for the structure of the melody is so arranged as to enhance the rhythmical effect.

In order to have an intelligent appreciation of these cadences, and of the manner of singing them, it will be well to say a few words on the element to which they owe their chief charm; this is the *cursus*.

The cursus is a certain harmonious succession of words and syllables, much used by prose writers, both Greek and Latin, at the end of phrases, with a view to procuring measured and pleasant cadences.

There are four forms of the rhythmical cursus:

Cursus	planus	5	syllables
>>	tardus	6	>>
>>	trispondiacus	6	>>
<b>&gt;&gt;</b>	velox	7	<b>»</b>

Ist. The *Cursus planus*. It consists of *five* syllables so disposed — a paroxyton <sup>1</sup> of three syllables preceded by another paroxyton.

be- nígnus illústra cle- ménter exáudi mere- ámur in cœlis mun- démur in ménte

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Paroxyton = a word which is accented on the penultimate.

2nd. The Cursus tardus. It is a cursus planus lengthened or retarded by one syllable. It consists of six syllables, and ends in a proparoxyton of four syllables preceded by a paroxyton.

solemni- táte lætíficas cárnis appáruit ini- mícos dilígere méntis et córporis instau- ráre dignátus es

3rd. The Cursus velox. It has seven syllables. It ends in a paroxyton of four syllables, preceded by a proparoxyton.

præmia præstitísti pélagi liberávit sánguine dedicásti Unigéniti tui vías pro- fíciant et salúti

4th. The *trispondiac cursus*. It consists of *six* syllables. Its structure is: a paroxyton of four syllables preceded by another paroxyton.

a- móre roborémur ter- réna moderáris dúce revelásti

The cursus is the basis on which numerous musical cadences have been built. We shall find it in nearly all the recitatives of the Liturgy.

#### Collects.

There are three tones for the Collect: the simple ferial tone (tonus simplex, or tonus missæ ferialis); the ferial tone (tonus ferialis); and the solemn tone (tonus festivus).

Ist. The simple ferial tone is sung from beginning to end on a monotone, the phrases of the prayer being marked merely by pauses. It is used only with the long conclusion. This is the tone employed at all the Offices on simples and

Proparoxyton = a word accented on the antepenultimate.

ferias, in Mass and Office for the dead, as well as at the Little Hours and Compline on Sundays and feasts of all degrees (except at Tierce when that Hour is immediately followed by Pontifical Mass). The simple ferial tone is used, moreover, for the prayers of the Blessing of the Candles (excepting the prayer Exaudi, which follows the distribution of the Candles); for the prayer Omnipotens in the Blessing of the Ashes; for the prayers of the Blessing of the Palms (except for Deus, qui per olivæ, and the prayer before the Procession); for the first prayer of the Good Friday service: Deus, a quo, the prayers after the Passion and for the prayer Libera in the Mass of the Presanctified; and lastly on Holy Saturday and Whitsun Eve, for the prayers said after the prophecies, and at the Blessing of the Font.

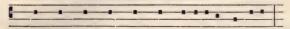
2nd. In the ferial tone, the prayer is sung on a monotone as far as the last syllable (or the last two syllables, if the word be accented on the penultimate), on which a fall of a minor third is made. The same is observed at the conclusion of the prayer. If several prayers are said in succession under one conclusion, as after the Litany of the Saints, the fall is made at the end of the last only. This tone is used only for the short conclusion, as follows: for the prayer following the Anthem of Our Lady, at the end of the Divine Office; for the prayer Dirigere of Prime; for the prayer at the Asperges and Vidi aquam; for the prayers after the Litany of the saints; for the prayer Exaudi which follows the distribution of the blessed candles; for the prayers in the Blessing of the Ashes excepting Omnipotens; and for two in the Blessing of the Palms, viz: Deus, qui per olivæ, and the prayer before the Procession; for prayers at Benediction and at processions; for the prayers in the Absolution after the Mass for the Dead, and the funeral service; in fact for all prayers outside the Mass and Office, which have the short conclusion.



Concéde miséricors Deus... iniquitátibus resur- gá-mus. Per Christum Dóminum nostrum.

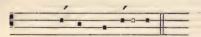
3rd. The solemn tone. This tone is divided into three parts which correspond with the three distinct phrases of which most of the liturgical prayers are composed.

The first part marked by a colon (:),



Concéde nos fámulos tuos,... sani-táte gaudére: cursus planus.

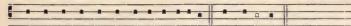
is modelled on the cursus planus; it is adapted as follows to other syllabic combinations:



nóstris in-fún-de. Cursus planus. Incarnati-ó-nem cognóvimus. præmia præ- sti- tí- sti. amóre ro- bo- ré- mur.

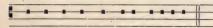
- » tardus. velox.
- trispondaicus. >

The second division of the prayer is marked by a semicolon (;) and is made by falling a semitone on the last syllable or syllables.



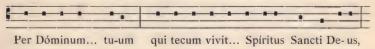
et gloriósa B. Maríæ intercessi-óne; (cognó-vimus).

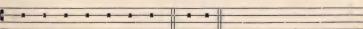
The prayer is concluded on a monotone:



a præsénti... pérfru- i lætí-ti-a.

The conclusion is sung thus:





per ómnia sæcula sæculórum. R. Amen.

The solemn tone is employed on Sundays, and on double and semi-double feasts, for the prayers of Mass, Matins, Lauds, and Vespers.

#### The Epistle.

The Epistle or Lesson of the Mass is recited on a monotone. The only exception is at a note of interrogation, when the voice falls a semitone (on the last accent before the stop) and rises again, by a podatus, on the last syllable of the sentence.



## The Gospel.

The Gospel-tone comprises three melodic phrases: a) before a note of interrogation; b) before a full stop; c) at the end. a) The note of interrogation is treated in the same way as in the Epistle.

b) At the full stop the voice falls a minor third, not sooner than the fourth last syllable, and returns, to the reciting note on the next syllable.



c) The end is marked by a little group of three notes, occurring generally on the last accent but one; i. e. not sooner than the sixth, nor later than the fourth, syllable from the end.

There is a special tone for the singing of the Passion in Holy Week. The Gospel narrative is divided into three parts, each of which has its distinctive melody, marked thus in the Missal: † (Christus) set before all the words of our Lord; C. (Cantor) before the narrative portions; S. (Synagoga or Succentor) before the words of any but our Lord. This last part includes, therefore, the cries of the crowd, the words of the priests, the governor, etc. and those of St. Peter.

As the Passion-music is printed in full in a special edition,

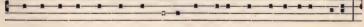
it is unnecessary to analyse it here.

#### The Preface.

The chant of the Preface is of two kinds: the solemn form (cantus solemnis or festivus), and the ferial form (cantus ferialis.)



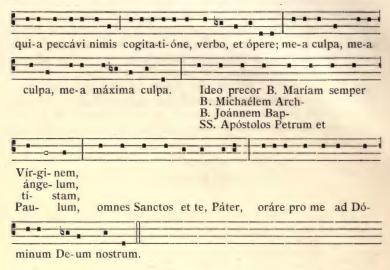
There are also two forms (ferial and solemn) for the Pater noster. We give below the chant to which the Confiteor is sung when Holy Communion is given at High Mass.



Confíteor Deo omnipo- tén- ti,

B. Maríæ semper
B. Michaéli
B. Joánni
Vír- gi-ni,
Archánge- lo,
Ba-ptí- stæ,

SS. Apóstolis Petro et Pau- lo, ómnibus Sanctis et tibi, Pater,

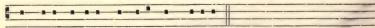


#### Versicles.

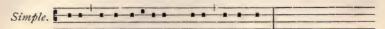
Deus in adjutorium. — There are two forms: 1. the simple, 2. the festive.



From Septuagesima to Easter, there is sung, instead of Alleluia:

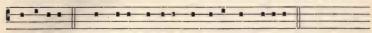


Laus tibi Dómine, Rex ætérnæ gló-ri-æ.



De-us in adjutóri- um me- um inténde.

All the rest on a monotone, down to



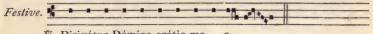
Alle-lú-ia, or Laus tibi Dómine Rex ætérnæ glóri-æ.

The simple tone is sung every day at Complin, and at all the Hours on ferias.

The festive tone is used on double and semi-double feasts at all the hours, Complin excepted.

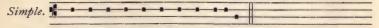
Versicles of the Office.

There are two tones: I. the simple, 2. the festive, 3. For Tenebrae and Office of the Dead.



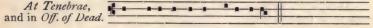
V. Dirigátur Dómine orátio me-a.

R. Sicut incénsum in conspéctu tu-o.



V. Angelus Dómini nuntiávit Marí-æ.

R. Et concépit de Spíritu San- cto.



In pace factus est locus e-jus.

The simple tone is used a) for the versicles of all commemorations at Lauds and Vespers; b) for the versicle following the Antiphon of our Lady at the end of the Office; c) for the versicles occurring in the *Preces*; r d) for the versicles following the Litanies; e) for the versicles at Benediction; and f) for the versicle following the *Asperges* and *Vidi Aquam*.

The festive tone is used for the Versicle in the body of the Office at all the hours on feasts of double rank.

In the ferial Office, the Preces are not sung but recited.

## The Chapter.

The Little Chapter is sung on a monotone, with inflexions only at a note of interrogation and at the end, thus:

- a) Note of interrogation, as above for Epistle.
- b) Final phrase:

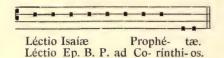


Appósuit ut apprehénderet et Pe-Glória Dómini super te orta est.

orta est. Ry. De-o grá-ti-as.

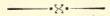
#### Lessons.

Lessons of Matins. — These are sung on a monotone, with a fall of a fifth at the full stop, and the usual inflection at a note of interrogation.



.At Tenebrae and in the Office of the Dead, the Lessons end on a monotone.

The same tone with monotone ending is employed for the Prophecies which precede the Mass of Easter Eve and Whitsun Eve, and for the first lesson in the morning service on Good Friday.



## CHAPTER XI.

## The Liturgical Books.

The official books of the Roman Liturgy are the following: The Roman Missal (Missale Romanum). This book contains all that is to be read or sung during Mass, i. e. Prayers, Lessons, Gospels, etc., and the Canon of the Mass. The music is given only for those parts which are sung by the Priest at the Altar. The portions of the Mass sung by the Priest are called Accentus, those sung by the choir, Concentus.

The Gradual (*Graduale* or *Liber Gradualis*). This book contains all the Mass-music appointed for the choir: Introits, Graduals, Alleluia-Verses, Tracts, Sequences, Offertories, and Communions, as well as the Ordinary of the Mass.

The Antiphoner (Antiphonarium). The complete form of this book would include all the chants of the Divine Office, from Matins to Complin. But the volume commonly called the Antiphoner, or more correctly Vesperal, contains the music for Vespers and Complin only.

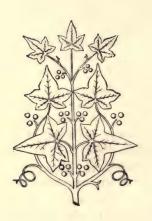
The Pontifical (*Pontificale Romanum*) contains the text and music for all the functions performed by a Bishop.

The Ritual (*Rituale Romannm*). This book contains the rites for the admistration of the Sacraments, for the Burial service, for processions, and for the various Blessings. The Processional, and the Burial service are, for convenience, generally published in a separate form.

The Psalter (*Psalterium Romanum*) gives the Psalms of the *Officium de tempore*, as well as the Hymns of the entire year, and the Office of the Dead.

The *Directorium Chori* is the standard text-book for all the tones of the Mass and Office, such as: Collects, Epistles, Gospels, etc.

The Martyrology (Martyrologium Romanum) gives the lists of the Saints commemorated each day. The Martyrology is sung or read every morning at Prime, in Cathedral and monastic Churches.



## APPENDIX.

#### BROKEN MEDIATIONS OF PSALMS.

The broken mediation may be employed in certain cases when the medial cadence ends with an accented syllable, i. e. with either a monosyllable or a Hebrew word (undeclined).

#### MEDIATIONS OF ONE ACCENT.

In the 2nd, 4th, 5th, 6th and 8th modes, the mediation is shortened; that is to say, its last note is omitted, and the accented monosyllable, or the last syllable of the Hebrew word is set to the accent-note.

The shortened mediation is always used, in the above modes, with verses ending with a Hebrew word or with a monosyllable.

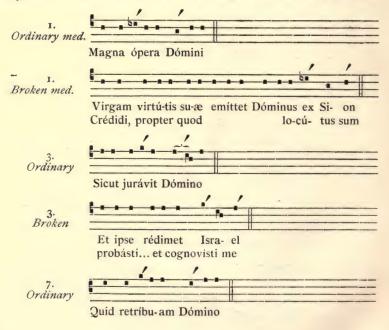




#### MEDIATIONS OF TWO ACCENTS.

In the 1st, 3rd, 7th and *Peregrinus* tones, the mediation is broken that is to say, a middle note of the cadence (the note after the first accent) is omitted.

RULE. The singing continues on the tenor as far as the third syllable from the end of the mediation. The last three syllables are fitted to the three notes of the broken cadence.

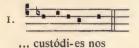




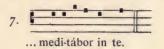




EXCEPTIONS. I. If the final monosyllable be preceded by a word accented on the antepenultimate, the usual form of mediation is employed. Thus:



2. When a mediation ends with two monosyllables, the broken mediation is not employed. Thus:



3. When the final Hebrew word is a dissyllable and the word preceding it has the accent on either the penultimate or the antepenultimate syllable, the broken mediation is not used. Thus:



The above exceptions refer only to mediations of two accents.

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In fidem, etc.

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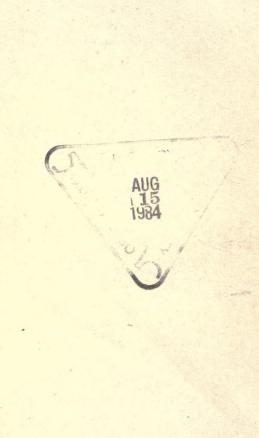
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